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occupational licensing:

protection for whom ?

By KAREN GREENE

In recent years this country has experienced a sharp increase in occupational licensing legislation. During the past quarter century such laws have doubled the number of professions, skilled trades, and even semiskilled jobs a worker cannot enter until he has demonstrated his competence and integrity to the satisfaction of a Federal, State, or municipal licensing authority. To the list of nonprofessional occupations that are old standbys in licensing—barber, beautician, practical nurse, plumber, and electrician —have been added such diverse occupations as jockey, horseshoer, tattoo artist, moving picture operator, watchmaker, and wild animal collector. In 1960—the most recent data available—there were more than 7 million people working in occupations that are licensed in one or another jurisdiction. A 1968 study indicated that about 500,000 workers in New York City alone are directly or indirectly affected by licensure.

Regulation of occupations through licensing originally was intended to protect the public from dishonest practitioners and promote high performance standards. However, whether by design or accident, many current licensing practices serve another purpose: They make it unnecessarily difficult for people to obtain licenses, thus limiting the number of practitioners. This conclusion flows from the findings of several studies on occupational licensing, including a pilot study in five States undertaken by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) for the U.S. Department of Labor.

Occupational licensing is characterized by a confusing variety of regulations from State to State, reducing the mobility of people in the various occupations. Most licensing boards are composed solely of people in the trade, who may have a direct interest in limiting competition. Many boards make little effort to furnish adequate information about, or to publicize, entrance requirements for the occupations they control. Difficult tests and excessive eligibility requirements often bar the urban poor and the disadvantaged. Other apparent barriers are the high costs (direct and indirect) of licensing, unrealistic training requirements, and lack of training facilities.

Reforms in licensing practices and regulations and better training and testing are needed to assure that the public interest is served. Opportunities should not be arbitrarily closed to the poor and to others seeking a livelihood in a wide variety of occupations where manpower shortages exist.

Altogether, there are almost 2,800 statutory provisions requiring occupational licenses, according to a review of State codes for 1968-69. The number of licensed occupations varies greatly from State to State. In Illinois and California for example, nearly 200 occupations are subject to State regulation, compared with less than 70 in North Dakota, Alaska, Missouri, Montana, South Carolina, and West Virginia.

This variation from State to State suggests that while many laws regulating occupations are clearly counter measures against potential abuses, many others appear to have been encouraged by workers in the licensed occupations. These workers have an advantage over those not subject to such controls in terms of higher income and professional recognition.

The only comprehensive analysis of State legislation dealing with the organ-

This article is taken from *Occupational Licensing and the Supply of Nonprofessional Manpower*, a forthcoming Manpower Administration monograph prepared by Mrs. Greene, a member of the staff of the Office of Manpower Research. Source material for the monograph included a five-State pilot study on occupational licensing done by the Educational Testing Service and studies by the Council of State Governments.

ization, powers, and duties of State licensing boards—a 1952 study by the Council of State Governments—demonstrated that a separate board was usually established for licensing each occupation. About three-fourths of the licensing boards were composed solely of practitioners in those occupations the board controls. The usual purpose of staffing licensing boards with members of the occupation, according to the council study, was to ensure that each board possesses expert knowledge in the field in which it works. Apparently no conflict of interest was seen in permitting laws designed to protect the public interest to be administered by members of a group whose personal financial interests are involved.

The council pointed out in its report that most licensing agencies "possess a large array of powers." Through the examining process and the power to establish qualifications for applicants, licensing boards determined how many persons were permitted to enter a licensed occupation. Boards influenced the type, location, and conditions of training required of applicants. The boards also established their own licensing and examining fees—the sole source of financing their operations. If a board sets fees that often are too high, it may limit access to the occupation; if it sets them too low, it restricts its own financial resources and scale of operations.

Licensing boards also frequently possessed substantial legislative and judicial authority in addition to their administrative powers, according to the study. Some licensing agencies could both prosecute a violation and suspend a license; some boards had the power to fix minimum fees for services and to enact rules and regulations in the licensed occupations. In exercising all of these powers, most boards were subject to control by some State executive agency or the legislature only through approval of their budgets. The licensing boards were usually accountable — if challenged — only to the courts.

Provisions for appeal currently exist in some State statutes. In New York, for example, candidates for licensing have a right to appeal to the Board of Regents if they feel they have been treated unfairly; however, such appeals are unusual.

The actual practices of State licensing boards, like their legislative authority, can seriously restrict access to occupations and geographic mobility within the occupation, according to the ETS pilot study. State licensing practices generally focus on eligibility standards. These cover residence in the State, attainment of a minimum age, completion of specified types and amounts of education, training, or experience, written or performance tests, and payment of a fee.

Few boards issue adequate information about licensing requirements and procedures, the ETS reported. Some boards impose eligibility requirements that exceed those needed for reasonable performance standards. The ETS also reported that examinations for some occupations are so difficult that a majority of the applicants fail in their first attempt.

In many cases, the fail rate is substantially higher for applicants who have acquired experience on the job as compared with those who have attended "accredited institutions." Those who fail often must pay reexamination fees as well as additional transportation costs if they wish to take the examination again.

Minimum age limits, assurance of good moral character and good health, a minimum period of residence in the State, and U.S. citizenship are the nontechnical demands made of most applicants for occupational licenses. The Council of State Governments reports the minimum age standard seems to bar few, if any, tech-

occupational licensing
continued

nically competent applicants from securing licenses. The citizenship requirement, however, rules out technically competent alien applicants. In those States visited by the ETS investigators, residency did not pose a serious obstacle to out-of-State applicants.

Requiring evidence of "good moral character" may also bar potential practitioners, especially the urban poor, who often have criminal records. Convictions for felonies or "crimes of moral turpitude" are the usual grounds for ineligibility, but arrests in themselves or misdemeanor convictions sometimes also disqualify an individual. Moreover, because many boards routinely send applicants' fingerprints to the FBI for checking, failure to disclose all arrests and convictions, whatever the reason, frequently will result in denial of a license. When arrests and convictions are not related to an individual's capacity to perform the job, barring him from the trade of his choice counters efforts of correctional institutions and rehabilitation programs to obtain gainful employment for offenders.

Of the three types of technical qualifications — education, work experience, and examination—testing is probably the most debatable. Written or oral examinations are a prerequisite for practically all licensed occupations. Unless an applicant who fails receives a temporary work permit, he is not likely to be able to practice without additional costs in reexamination fees, transportation, and loss of earning time.

Although examinations are designed to weed out unqualified applicants, they can become exclusionary devices unless an equitable and reliable testing framework is maintained. In New York State all examinations are given in English, thus barring Spanish-speaking Puerto Ricans who may deal with a Spanish-speaking clientele, regardless of their qualifications. The absence of well defined standards and the subjective nature of performance ratings among many local and State licensing boards, according to the ETS, makes it "relatively easy" to exclude applicants who actually may be qualified.

In its limited survey, the ETS found that many board members lack expertise in the field of testing. As a result, the examinations vary widely in the quality and difficulty of questions. Performance ratings for practical examinations were singled out for special criticism, as they lacked standardization and grading was usually subjective. Many State and local licensing boards prepare their examinations in a "haphazard" fashion. They use questions that have not been reviewed for clarity or checked beforehand to determine what should constitute an acceptable answer.

Notable exceptions pointed out by the ETS investigators were the national examinations for dental hygienists and practical nurses—both of which are prepared by professionally trained testing specialists. Test specifications for the dental hygiene exam are prepared by the Board of Dental Examiners in consultation with dental hygiene educators and State board examiners. For the practical nursing exam, the specifications are developed by experts from various licensing boards and the professional staff of the National League of Nursing. To ensure that the questions meet with the approval of various State boards, preliminary versions of the exam are sent from the test development committee to each State board before it is pretested in a cross section of States. Results are subjected to item analysis to determine which items should be retained, and then norms are established for the final test.

The ETS found that several licensing examinations emphasized recall of facts and small details. Moreover, several vocational educators interviewed in the sur-

'very few boards seemed to make an effort to communicate with applicants in a way that would make it easy for them to understand

vey complained that the tests continued to include questions about obsolete practices and trivial material. They also said the exam content dictates trade school curriculums, so these practices affect the caliber of training in the trade schools. Such shortcomings of exams also raise serious doubts about whether they can be used to measure an individual's potential ability to perform the job or whether they simply serve as achievement tests for training school graduates.

In some occupations, the difficulty of the examination for nongraduates may be compounded by the fact that there are only a few accredited institutions where a would-be practitioner can obtain requisite training. The opthalmic dispensers are an extreme case in point, having only three accredited programs in the country, according to the ETS. The examination covers such subjects as mathematics, physics, physiology of the eye, and optics. Consequently, only 20 percent of the applicants for an opthalmic dispenser's license in New York passed a recent examination and in Florida all but 36 percent failed.

Formal training programs have become a prerequisite for licensing in such occupations as practical nursing, cosmetology, and dental hygiene. Individuals who trained in another area must have their qualifications evaluated by the licensing board in the State where they intend to practice. If the board does not accept out-of-State experience at full value, the applicant must take additional instruction at an in-State institution. Returning to school not only delays entry into the occupation but may even persuade an individual to seek employment elsewhere.

Formal instruction is necessary in highly specialized trades not easily learned from practical experience or without great risk to the public welfare. In occupations where job skills can be learned through practice, however, requiring training in "approved" institutions and additional work experience unnecessarily prolongs the period when an individual is working at low wages if at all.

According to the National Barber Apprenticeship Policy—which provides the basic standards for State Bureau of Apprenticeship training programs—a typical requirement for licensing as a barber includes at least 24 months of on-the-job training in addition to graduation from an accredited barber's school. This 6-month preapprenticeship schooling includes the study of "hygiene and bacteriology, histology of the hair, skin muscles and nerves, elementary chemistry relating to sterilization and antiseptics, and diseases of the skin, hair, and glands." Both the length and the content of training needed for nonprofessional occupations appear to deserve study by licensing boards, occupational groups, and vocational educators.

Licensing boards do, on occasion, waive specified educational requirements by accepting alternatives and equivalents. This makes it possible for boards to license applicants who otherwise appear to be well qualified. According to the Council of State Governments' study, however, "professional associations which emphasize formal educational training sometimes tend to view these substitute provisions with disfavor."

While licensing fees are nominal in most cases, exceptions do exist, and costs are subject to wide State variations. A dental hygienist can get a license in a southern State for $25 to $40, but in N vada the fee is $75. It costs a practical nurse three times as much for a license in Idaho as it does in Massachusetts. The licensing and examination fee for a plumber in Illinois is $50; in Jacksonville, Fla., it is $15.

The "hidden costs" of licensing in most occupations is discouraging to low income people. The ETS report indicated that some States hold licensing examinations at only one location, which may be a considerable distance from the applicant's home. In one State, an applicant for a plumbing license might have to pay as much as $88 for a round trip by air to the city where the examination is held.

the requirements for licensing or the procedures to be followed in seeking licensure'

occupational licensing
continued

The Plumbing Board in that State regards a single location for examinations as being the best way to conform to the State law requiring that examinations be "uniform and reasonable."

In occupations such as dental hygienist and cosmetologist, the examinee must bring another person to the examination to serve as a model, thereby doubling transportation, accommodations, and food costs to the applicant.

Most States have some provision for licensing practitioners from other States — usually by endorsement, reciprocity, waiver, or examination. Licensing by endorsement usually implies that board members consider an applicant eligible who holds a license from another State that requires equivalent qualifications, sometimes with the waiver of certain requirements. Under reciprocity agreements, the State licensing board "endorses" out-of-State licensees only if the same recognition is given its licensees by the other State. Both procedures are limited, however, by the lack of uniformity in State occupational qualifications and the practice of imposing additional requirements for out-of-State applicants.

The disparity between entrance requirements for the same occupations seriously limits the freedom of licensees to practice in various parts of the country. The minimum training requirement for a beautician in Oregon is 6 months longer than for a beautician in Wyoming. In six States a high school diploma is required to become a practical nurse, while high school dropouts are eligible in the rest. Opticians in Connecticut and New Jersey must have 4 years of work experience; in Rhode Island, Nevada, and Virginia, they need only 1 year.

Inadequate publicity and poor descriptions of difficult licensing procedures further complicate the job entry problems posed by disparities in State requirements. Because of lack of centralization in most licensing systems, as well as staffing shortages, many States have no general information service on licensing requirements and procedures.

According to the ETS report, "very few boards seemed to make an effort to communicate with applicants in a way that would make it easy for them to understand the requirements for licensing or the procedures to be followed in seeking licensure." It is commonplace for applicants inquiring about licensing to be sent only a copy of the licensing law and board regulations. Another study reported that only a few of the licensing agencies surveyed were interested in disseminating information to the public; they considered it "a responsibility of the occupational associations."

Though far from complete, the available evidence is sufficient to demonstrate that licensing practices can restrict the supply and inhibit the mobility of workers in licensed occupations. Further research would be helpful, but the information at hand pinpoints several areas where reforms should be considered.

- Centralization of licensing agencies into one unit within the State government—as more than a third of the States have already done — would strengthen administration. It would also make it possible to give job applicants and occupational guidance personnel better information about licensing requirements. A third benefit would be to minimize the influence of practitioners on licensing their own occupations. More than a third of the States have already reorganized along these lines.
- Consideration should also be given to other methods of limiting the control practitioners have over the board that licenses their occupation. Licensing boards are made up of practitioners of the trade they regulate to assure that board members have expert knowledge in the field. This can also be achieved by appointing board members from related occupations, which would reduce the possibility of an occupational group unnecessarily limiting the number of practitioners.
- Adoption of uniform standards in licensing would permit qualified practitioners to work in another State or locality without obtaining a new license.
- The standards and grading of tests could be improved. This can be done with the help of testing experts and vocational educators. Nationwide examinations now in existence—for licensed practical nurses and dental hygienists—might serve as models.
- A system of minimum standard testing could be substituted for the highly variable requirements for a specified period of work under a master in the trade. Some boards are now empowered to waive work-experience requirements for otherwise qualified candidates. It should be possible to allow applicants to follow the most expeditious route to licensing without sacrificing competency.
- Nontechnical requirements—residency, citizenship, age, or moral character—should be reappraised. They can restrict opportunities to new residents of a State, aliens, members of minority groups, youth, and applicants with criminal records. Those that do not serve the public interest should be dropped.
- Training programs should be expanded in those occupations where lack of facilities is a formidable barrier. Possible accreditation of existing schools or community colleges should be considered.
- Steps should be taken to make sure that licensing costs, indirect as well as direct, do not bar qualified workers. Accredited institutions and testing facilities could be located at sites that minimize travel costs. The whole question of who should pay the bill for protecting the public interest should be reexamined.

Further research is needed to pave the way for other desirable changes. More should be known about the use of vocational educators and employers in establishing licensing standards. More information is needed on the impact of licensing requirements on trade school curriculums. Other questions that should be explored are:

- How much of an advantage do graduates of formal training programs have over people relying on work experience alone in entering a licensed trade?
- What criteria are used by licensing board members to evaluate training and work experience obtained outside their States?
- How widely are vocational educators used in evaluating training and work experience?
- How fair and how relevant are the examinations?
- What is the actual as well as the potential impact of licensing practices on manpower shortages and workers' opportunities?

Computers Tested for 'Matchmaking' Skills

By LEDFORD DAY

Balancing prudence against urgency, the U.S. Department of Labor is forging ahead in one of the most ambitious computerization efforts ever undertaken—the search for a pushbutton method of matching a man and a job. Tests of a variety of methods and techniques are producing progress toward the goal of a nationwide automated employment service that will be able to match up quickly an unemployed worker anywhere with a job offer for which he is suited.

What is being sought is a system that can instantly produce a current job inventory on a city, State, regional, or national basis; a similar inventory on job applicants; or a comprehensive identification of training needs and opportunities. Conceivably, such a system could anticipate labor needs and head off the threat of economic crisis to a community by assessing where manpower programs should put their available resources to obtain greatest results.

Major problems remain to be overcome in establishing an electronics system big enough and sophisticated enough to meet the exacting needs of the Fderal-State network of more than 2,000 public employment security offices spread over 50 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands. A nationwide man-and-job matching system could cost as much as $100 million a year to operate, perhaps even more. The largest capacity computers now made would be required. Ways must be found to make them do precisely the things the Labor Department wants them to do.

The first fully automated State job placement system was launched in January in Utah. Wisconsin and California are getting started this summer, and Michigan, Florida, and New York are well along in planning.

Meanwhile, in Baltimore, a simple computer-assisted job-bank system in operation for the past year has proved so successful that it is being installed over the next 18 months in at least 35 of the Nation's other major cities, where the need is most urgent.

The Baltimore Job Bank does not attempt to use the computer to match workers and jobs. It uses the computer to assemble, update, and print a listing each night of all available job openings locally —often as many as 10,000. When the Job Bank first started, only about 3,000 jobs were offered on an ordinary day.

Benefits to employers became apparent at once. Applicants were furnished to them quickly, and when a job was filled, the opening was immediately removed from the list. Maryland State Employment Service officials estimate that 60 to 70 percent of Baltimore area employers are now using the Job Bank to obtain workers.

Each morning 45 copies of the 300- to 600-page job list is reproduced and sped to employment offices, manpower agencies, and outreach centers located in the areas of heaviest unemployment.

The system has enabled the Maryland State Employment Service to improve significantly its manpower services to the disadvantaged in the Baltimore area. Placements of the disadvantaged, formerly about 17 percent of the monthly total, have been increased to more than 36 percent.

During the first 4 months of 1968, before the Job Bank was started, placements for the Baltimore metropolitan area totaled 8,026 with 1,369 of them going to hard-core unemployed. For the first 4 months of 1969, placements totaled 8,049 —but 2,954 of them went to hard-core jobless people.

The Baltimore system costs about $185,000 a year to operate, and some experts say that for $15,000 or $20,000 more it could be made to cover virtually the entire State.

The Baltimore system does not include the communicating equipment necessary for a national job placement hookup. But because it has proved its usefulness within a metropolitan area, the Job Bank is being installed in other major cities while the search for a more comprehensive automated system continues.

The Utah system is primarily a method of using a computer to match people and

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jobs and, secondarily, an attempt to automate all manpower paperwork that can be efficiently and economically performed by a computer. It will be carefully watched, as will be the Wisconsin, California, Florida, Michigan, and New York probes, each of which will take slightly different approaches as part of the effort to find the most effective system.

"A vibrant new feeling of capability already is permeating the agency," said Curtis P. Harding, administrator of the Utah Department of Employment Security. "The computer has, in effect, made our State seem like one labor market area. In one file we have our fingers on the jobseekers and the available jobs in the entire State. Formerly, we had a separate file in each of the 14 offices that referred only to the specific areas served by that office, and statewide coordination was a slow process.

"We are already doing things we only dreamed about before the computer. For example, an employer contacts our Ogden office and wants to hire several truck drivers. There are none available in the local area; so we tell the computer to check other areas. It says there are some in Salt Lake City. We contact them and they take the jobs. It is as simple as that. One statewide file of applicants is available to any local office. The same is true of job openings."

Computer Vocabulary Created

Officials from several State employment security agencies and from the U.S. Training and Employment Service in Washington have visited Utah to study the system and see it in operation.

Wisconsin is testing an Employment Service On-Line Placement System which screens each applicant against all available job openings, based on a wide range of the applicant's abilities. The system was demonstrated late last fall, and beginning this month it will be tested in an operational situation in two local employment service offices in Madison.

The development effort in California, called Labor Inventory Network Communications System (LINCS), began in 1962 as an attempt to use the Labor Department's *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT) as the basis for a computer code that would match qualified applicants and openings in professional, managerial, and technical jobs. When it became apparent that the computer was missing some feasible matches, a key word vocabulary describing worker qualifications and job requirements was developed to supplement the DOT codes.

These key words are being programed into the California Department of Employment computer in Sacramento. Current plans call for the department's professional placement offices in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Sacramento to begin making extensive use of the computer vocabulary matching system this summer. Communication lines will link printing terminals at the placement offices with the computer.

Notable Placements

The California Department of Employment runs the largest job placement operation for professional workers of any public agency in the world. The Los Angeles professional office alone places several hundred persons a month, and more than 11,000 people seeking professional jobs are registered there. At any given time, there are about 1,500 professional job openings listed in the computer.

Although the system is still being refined, the computer already has been involved in some notable placements. A banker who lost his job because of a merger was interviewed at one of the professional offices and his qualifications and desires, including a request for a $50,000-a-year salary, were recorded on computer cards. The data were run through the computer and out came the job order of a bank that had an opening for a $50,000-a-year vice president. The applicant was hired.

The computer also found a job for a 78-year-old civil engineer who had turned to the professional placement office as a last hope.

The highest paid job listed so far by the computer was a $100,000 opening as president of a prominent savings and loan company. The computer matched a qualified man with the listing and the company offered him the job. But he turned it down because the fringe benefits did not include stock options.

Details of the automated system to be tested in Michigan and Florida are still being developed The design team in Michigan hopes to employ a search strategy which would include, but not be heavily reliant on, the DOT coding structure.

One objective of the Michigan design is to treat all jobs requiring less than 30 days of training as if they were the same job in terms of a DOT code. Matching of men and jobs would thus have to be done on the basis of factors other than the actual work performed.

Farm Hiring Accelerated

The Michigan State Employment Service already is operating a computer-assisted farm labor information system, but this is fundamentally a locator device and not a matching system. It is designed to help agricultural employers quickly recruit and hire migrant farmworkers who live in other States, and to permit the workers to contact employers and obtain firm job commitments. The system, using computer-assisted teletypes, links eight locations in Michigan with Florida, Texas, Arkansas, and Ohio.

In New York City an Area Manpower Data System is in an early design phase. It would provide for searching a bank of openings for the best five jobs for each individual applicant, based on a weighted combination of factors, including experience, location, salary, and education.

Within the Federal-State employment security system, the unemployment insurance service—sister agency of the employment service—has been working with mechanized systems for 2 decades and is now highly automated. It is seeking further use of machines to improve and speed its services, and its experience is proving valuable to the employment service.

In Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Michigan, considerable experience has been gained in development of a local office payment system for unemployment insurance benefits. The objective is to be able to write checks instantaneously in local offices on a terminal which is connected to a computer in the State administrative office.

Efforts also are underway to use automated equipment in State employment service operations other than job placement. One such area is the employment service's reporting system, vital in supplying up-to-date operating information for manpower planning purposes. A test of an Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS) has been underway since last July in Oregon, Texas, and Vermont.

ESARS doesn't change operating methods; it replaces the old manually prepared reports with a better and faster system of machine reporting. It enables the State employment services and the U.S. Training and Employment Service for the first time to make a current evaluation of the kinds of help they are giving jobseekers. Equally important, it identifies individuals who are not being served.

New Accounting System

Another major phase of the overall effort to put electronics to work for the Federal-State employment security system is the development of a "closed loop" system of planning, budgeting, reporting, evaluation, and cost-accounting. This setup will permit the Labor Department to respond more quickly and sensitively to the changing manpower needs of local communities, States, and the Nation as a whole. All State employment security agencies will soon be putting into operation the new cost-accounting system that has been in development since mid-1967. It has already been started in Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.

Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz has noted that, with greater reliance on machines to handle routine tasks, more employment security system employees will be free "to do the much more creative things that are necessary in dealing with the individual worker, counseling him and her, and helping him and her to find and get on to really good jobs."

He has expressed the hope "that we can all restrain ourselves from too much fascination with the technology and keep remembering that the real objective here is to produce something that serves human needs; that's what it is all about, and that's where our attention really needs to be concentrated all the time."

THE JOB BANK

DEPOSIT

Information on a job opening called in by the Baltimore Department of Housing and Community Development is keypunched onto a computer card.

The punched cards containing job orders are run through the computer, which each day deletes filled jobs, enters new ones, and produces a printed list of all current openings in the Job Bank. Forty-five books are duplicated from the original printout.

WITHDRAWAL

Reginald Hux picks up an application at the registration desk of the Maryland State Employment Service office in Baltimore.

Hux fills out the application, listing all pertinent information about himself, including job skills and work experience.

After reviewing Hux's application, interviewer Ruth Richmond scans the Job Bank book and finds that his skills match those needed for the opening at the Department of Housing and Community Development. But before referring him to the job she checks with. . .

. . .Mrs. Dorothy Moore, Job Bank referral control operator, who reviews her records to make sure the job has not been filled earlier in the day. She gives Miss Richmond clearance to arrange an interview for Hux.

Hux gets the job and a few days later is at work as a clerk-typist at the Department's Cherry Hill Homes project.

Teaching Turns Them On

By Mary Conway Kohler

The 15-year-old girl was doing badly in school. She was in the ninth grade, but her reading level was nearly three grades below that. Still, she knew more than the 10-year-old boy she was tutoring. They worked together an hour each day during the summer. At the end of 7 weeks, his reading had improved slightly. Her test score improved the equivalent of more than 3 years.

The scene was Newark and it was the summer of 1967. The National Commission on Resources for Youth, with experimental and demonstration funds provided by the U.S. Department of Labor, was trying out a new work-experience concept—youth tutoring youth. The main idea was to find out if youngsters who had poor scholastic records could learn work habits and literary skills by teaching.

In Newark, test scores measuring reading age equivalents went up 3.5 years. In a companion trial at Philadelphia, tutors raised their scores an average of 1 year.

By May 1969 more than 700 in-school Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) youngsters were serving as paid instructors for twice that number of younger students through Youth Tutoring Youth Programs being conducted in 10 cities. The commission, under contract with the Manpower Administration, is providing technical assistance to in-school NYC sponsors. It helps develop tutoring techniques and materials and works with local NYC staff personnel who direct the programs.

Other than this technical assistance, the program imposes no extra costs on the Labor Department. The tutors are regular NYC enrollees and would be assigned to other paid jobs if they were not tutoring.

In one instance the record of NYC tutors compared favorably with that of professional educators. A program to help disadvantaged students in Los Angeles last summer used NYC tutors as well as professional teachers. The program was built around an experimental reading project called Formula-Phonics, a new and effective method of improving the school performance of children, including

Mrs. Kohler is director of the National Commission on Resources for Youth, a nonprofit agency for promoting the constructive participation of young people in the betterment of their communities.

the disadvantaged. The NYC tutors were given an intensive 14-hour program to train them in the formula-phonics method. At the end of the summer both groups of pupils—those taught by NYC tutors and those instructed by professional teachers —had advanced an average of 1 year in reading ability.

The 14- and 15-year-old NYC tutors usually are so close in age and interests to their pupils that they know, perhaps better than any adult, how to motivate them to learn. One imaginative tutor used her pupil's love of eating to spur his progress in learning. She promised the youngster a trip to a restaurant for a hamburger if he could spell all the words on the menu. He not only mastered this useful bit of knowledge, but also memorized all the prices.

Tutors Make Materials

Tutors create their own materials and methods for use in teaching. Tape recorders, cameras, typewriters, records, comic books, and games (especially the homemade variety) also are used to stimulate the interest of the youngsters. Tutors are continually urged to get out of the classroom with the pupils—to take them to the park, to the zoo, to any place that will stir the pupils' imaginations and give the tutors ideas for developing new reading material.

School officials in Duluth, Minn., were skeptical of the project when it was launched there in January of this year. Now they are impressed with the results.

"Sometimes you wonder if these [NYC] programs do anything other than put dollars in the pockets of poor kids," said James Peterson, the physical education instructor who is in charge of the program in Duluth. "Then you see a change coming over them and you realize the value."

He cited the case of a 14-year-old girl, an eighth-grader, who was considered a slow learner because of poor IQ and test scores. But, Peterson said, she did not lack intelligence, "she simply didn't care."

Her work as a tutor brought out her latent leadership qualities. She took it upon herself to sell the program to other tutors and to the school. School authorities once regarded her as almost certain to become a dropout at age 16. Within 4 months she became one of the best tutors in the program. Her dress and behavior improved markedly and her chronic truancy ended. She developed into an above-average student. And she has a new ambition—to be a teacher.

It has long been recognized that teaching can be a powerful learning experience. But almost always those who teach already know. Those who need most desperately to learn rarely have the opportunity to learn by teaching. That certainly is the case with most NYC youngsters.

The NYC in-school program enrolls potential dropouts 14 and older from poor families and tries to help them stay in school. They usually work 10 hours a week in their spare time at $1.25 an hour. In many cases the money they earn makes the difference between their being able to complete high school or being forced to drop out. They work in the schools they attend or in other public agencies or private nonprofit institutions, serving as aides to teachers, librarians, hospital technicians, and custodial personnel. Their responsibilities are minimal and their tasks are fairly routine.

Idea Tested in 1963

The idea that disadvantaged youngsters could teach younger children, with tangible gains to both instructor and learner, was tested in 1963-65 in an intensive study made by a University of Michigan team. The study disclosed that the behavior of student tutors improved simply because they were placed, often for the first time in their lives, in positions of trust and responsibility. And the teaching role itself developed their ability to learn.

In 1966 Columbia University studied a tutorial program, called Homework Helper, conducted by Mobilization for Youth, New York City's Lower East Side antipoverty agency, involving 252 grade school pupils and 97 tutors. The younger children doubled their reading growth rate in 7 months. The tutors moved ahead more than 3 years.

The Labor Department's 1967 summer experiment in Newark and Philadelphia was the first step toward linking the youth tutoring youth concept with its natural partner, the Neighborhood Youth Corps. The projects were run in cooperation with the public school systems in both cities.

Two hundred NYC boys and girls 14 to 16 years old whose family incomes met poverty criteria and who were underachievers tutored younger children in reading. The tutors were nominated for the demonstration by their teachers and guidance counselors and received training throughout the project.

The children to be taught were at least two grades below the tutors, and were reading below their grade levels. In Philadelphia the 120 tutors worked in groups

Teaching
continued

'Failure piles upon failure until finally, when the law allows, they remove their bodies from an establishment that never really interested their minds or spirits.'

of 20 at six schools. Each group was supervised by a certified teacher and a young teacher's aide who was a disadvantaged, but academically able, recent high school graduate.

Newark's project, quite different in staffing and administration, was at one school with 80 tutors working in groups of 15 or fewer. The supervisor in each of the six groups was a mother from the neighborhood with no training and little education. She was assisted by an older Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollee. In both cities a certified teacher directed the overall program.

All of the 588 children tutored in Philadelphia and nearly all the 180 in Newark were in grades two to seven.

Different Emphasis

It should be recognized that the improvement of 3.5 years in reading maturity made by the Newark tutors in the 7-week project was not solely the result of their being given the opportunity to teach others. The higher test scores also reflected other factors, including the familiarity they gained with the testing process and the intense pressures for improvement stemming from the project.

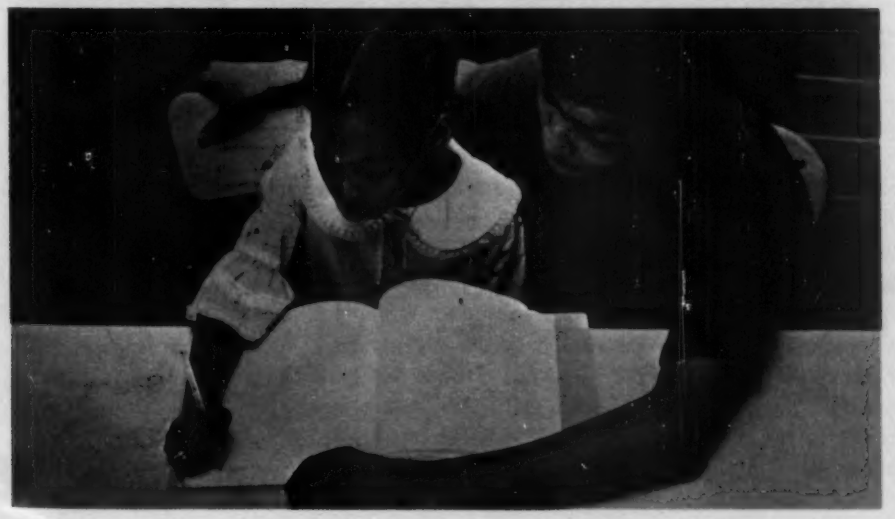
Philadelphia's young tutors showed less progress, but they had a shorter road to travel. The median age of the tutors in both cities was 14.5. Newark, however, used boys and girls with considerably lower reading skill levels than Philadelphia. The Newark project recruited tutors who were far behind in reading. In Philadelphia the emphasis was on selecting youngsters with behavioral problems. Tutors in Newark were an average of nearly 3 years below grade level in reading, compared to a lag of less than half a year in Philadelphia.

Motivation was unusually strong in Newark. School authorities and the Negro community were in conflict over educational policies in general. Three of the six mothers supervising the project had been among those actively campaigning for educational changes, and their intense desire to make the program a success was conveyed to the tutors. This determination showed most clearly during the riot that racked Newark while the program was in progress; tutors continued to show up for their assignments. (The tutor dropout rate in both cities was extremely low —only 7 out of 200.)

Whatever the mothers who supervised the Newark tutors lacked in professional experience they made up for in rapport with the children. This is how a National Commission on Resources for Youth staff technician described one of the Newark supervisors and her work:

"The tutoring sessions were ending and . . . she was reviewing individually, sometimes with tutor and tutee together, the work completed that day. Her skills were something any experienced teacher would envy. She was looking at work individually—listening to tutees read a little in some cases, admiring, complimenting, answering requests from those who wanted to take things home to show their mothers. . . . There was a calm, businesslike, pleasant atmosphere. . . . This lady is, in my opinion, an unusually gifted and effective person. She relates beautifully to teenagers."

The strength of the one-to-one teaching relationship was summed up by a Philadelphia youngster who explained: "I don't really like my tutor better than my classroom teacher but I like to work with my tutor better. My classroom teacher has too many children."



The tutors and their supervisors made little attempt to use formal teaching materials, which reminded the tutors and the pupils of their past failures in school. With creative imagination, the tutors developed their own. Asked to demonstrate the materials she was using, one tutor showed:

- A booklet with large pages filled with pictures and labels of items beginning with the letter "f."
- A color-matching game, involving crayoned pictures and crayoned squares.
- A large crossword puzzle with different colored squares. The tutor read the definitions to her pupils, who responded by telling her what letters to put into the various colored blocks.
- A game in which contractions were matched with their full spellings.

The tutors also used current events to stimulate interest. One group in Philadelphia went into the street with a tape recorder to interview people selected at random. They solicited the views of passersby on teenagers, the Vietnam conflict, and the riots. These tapes then became the subject matter of group discussions.

Although the demonstrations were a success, the Commission concluded that if the youth tutoring youth concept was to make an impact on current NYC programs, a model year-round project would have to be developed. This model would enable school officials from across the country to observe the project's operation and techniques.

In January 1968, Philadelphia became the site of the school-year demonstration project. Funds from a host of sources within the educational system paid for administrative personnel. One hundred NYC youngsters in five schools began tutoring 9 hours a week, and spent an additional hour each week on remedial work. The program at one school was headed by a 17-year-old NYC high school senior. Two programs were run by teacher aides, another by a Teacher Corps intern, and another by a professional teacher. The director of the overall five-school project was a professional teacher.

Administrators and teachers from Kansas City, Detroit, Wilmington, and

Teaching
continued

the District of Columbia were brought to Philadelphia in May 1968 as "interns" for an 8-day training session conducted by the commission. The school superintendents of each of the cities represented promised to establish the program in their schools following the training of the interns.

All of the interns were skeptical at the outset about the possibility of underachieving youngsters serving as tutors. Eight days later they had made a complete turnabout. They formally recommended that at least 25 percent of all in-school NYC job slots be used for tutoring by 14- and 15-year-old enrollees.

Within a short time youth tutoring youth 1968 summer projects were set up in Detroit, Washington, D.C., and Kansas City and were continued during the regular school year.

Washington was the site of a 4-day training institute conducted by the commission in the fall of 1968. Attending were representatives from the school systems of Cleveland, New Haven, Atlanta, Duluth, Miami, Portland (Oreg.), and a 20-county area of Kentucky. Two months later, all of these school systems were operating NYC youth tutoring youth programs, as were Los Angeles and San Mateo, Calif. Implementation was different at each place, but in every case the 14- and 15-year-olds who served as tutors were underachievers.

Dade County, Fla., schools added the youth tutoring youth project to an incentive program that had been built up in the junior colleges as part of a major effort to recruit teachers for the Dade County system. These work-study college students supervised NYC tutors. In New Haven, the Black Educators, a coalition of concerned Negro teachers interested in developing supplementary educational programs for inner-city students, sponsored the program.

In Los Angeles and San Mateo, NYC tutors were added to the staffs of after-school study centers, to work alongside volunteers and professional teachers.

New Abilities Discovered

At this early stage the influence of the tutoring experience in keeping potential dropouts in school or in improving their behavior cannot be measured precisely. However, the experience to date indicates that young people need and want an opportunity to make a positive contribution to their schools and to other students. By testing and challenging themselves, they learn the rewards of assuming responsibility. They uncover abilities they never knew they had—a vital factor in inspiring in poverty-stricken children the confidence they need to get ahead in the adult world.

In an education system dominated by the philosophy of preparing the academically able for entry into college, it is easy for poor youngsters to drop out. They soon sense that their needs and expectations are incompatible with the furious striving, through traditional methods, for academic achievement. Failure piles upon failure until finally, when the law allows, they remove their bodies from an establishment that never really interested their minds or spirits.

The use of NYC youngsters as tutors is spreading. Technical assistance manuals for supervisors, administrators, and tutors have been developed, techniques are being refined, and training is improving. Ideas are being exchanged nationally through a tutors' newsletter, edited and distributed by the commission. But the main ingredient for success is the active cooperation of local school systems, which have been notoriously slow to change.

For nearly 5 years, the high schools have used NYC enrollees to relieve teachers and other school personnel of routine tasks, and the temptation is great to leave things as they are. And not only educators are involved. Even the school janitor who has become accustomed to having energetic NYC youngsters as helpers will resist having them shifted to jobs as tutors.

'Instrument of Change'

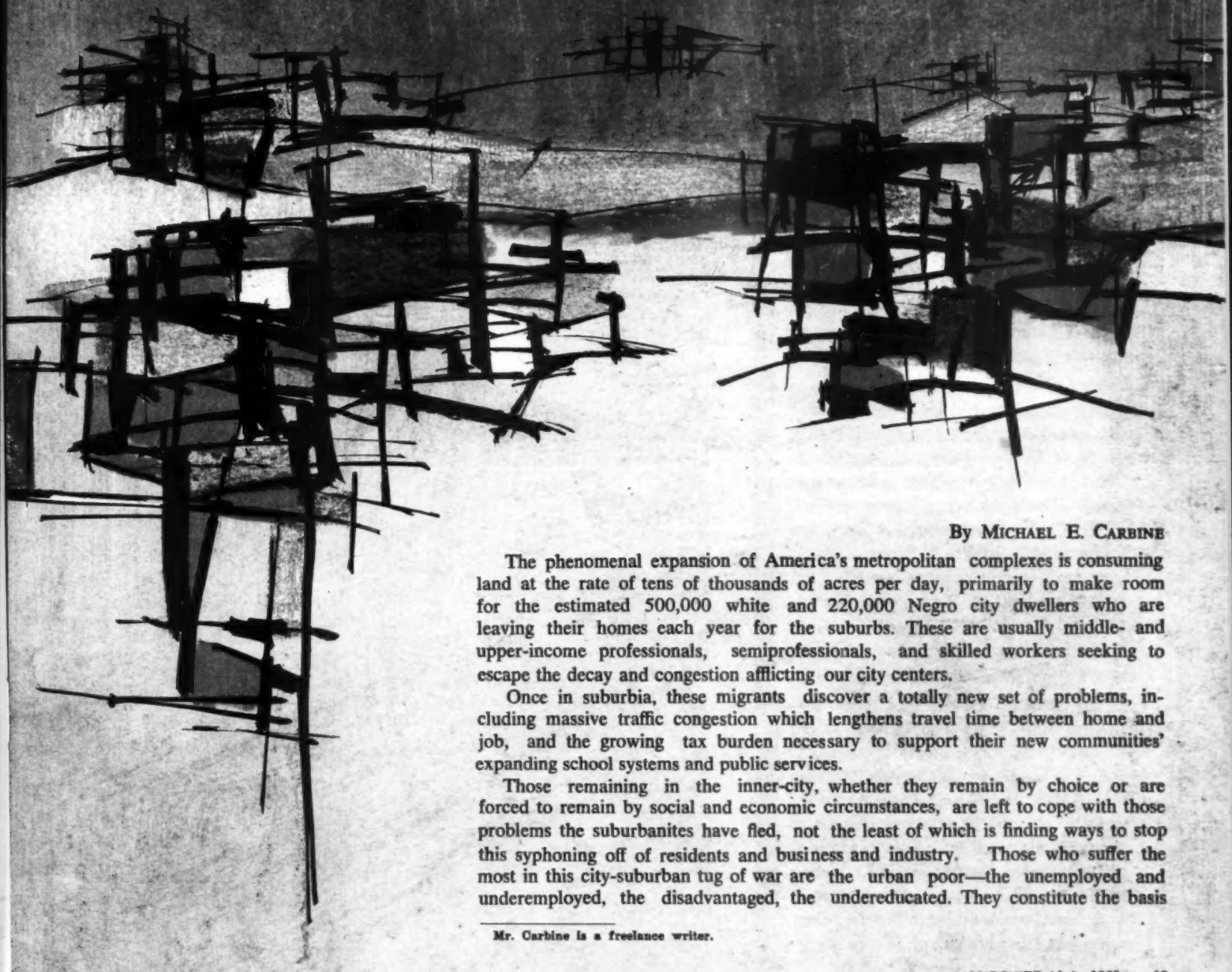
But more and more educators are coming to recognize the need for more constructive NYC work assignments for 14- and 15-year-olds. "Youth tutoring youth is an instrument of change," said Benjamin J. Henley, vice superintendent of schools for the District of Columbia. "It is a way to improve an already existing NYC program, so that the jobs provide not only a way to earn money, but also a way for enrollees to develop competence academically and to become excited, perhaps for the first time, about knowledge and creativity."

Elementary school authorities sometimes resist the intrusion of poverty-level high school teenagers assigned to tutor their pupils. They soon learn their apprehensions are groundless. As one Philadelphia elementary school principal commented:

"I personally was a little fearful having youngsters who were underachievers and also normally disciplinary problems. You would anticipate having them wandering about the building and causing trouble. This fear was unfounded. They behaved themselves admirably and I haven't had a single problem. They must feel that more is expected of them in this position."

NEW TOWNS

and the Search for an Urban Solution



By MICHAEL E. CARBINE

The phenomenal expansion of America's metropolitan complexes is consuming land at the rate of tens of thousands of acres per day, primarily to make room for the estimated 500,000 white and 220,000 Negro city dwellers who are leaving their homes each year for the suburbs. These are usually middle- and upper-income professionals, semiprofessionals, and skilled workers seeking to escape the decay and congestion afflicting our city centers.

Once in suburbia, these migrants discover a totally new set of problems, including massive traffic congestion which lengthens travel time between home and job, and the growing tax burden necessary to support their new communities' expanding school systems and public services.

Those remaining in the inner-city, whether they remain by choice or are forced to remain by social and economic circumstances, are left to cope with those problems the suburbanites have fled, not the least of which is finding ways to stop this syphoning off of residents and business and industry. Those who suffer the most in this city-suburban tug of war are the urban poor—the unemployed and underemployed, the disadvantaged, the undereducated. They constitute the basis

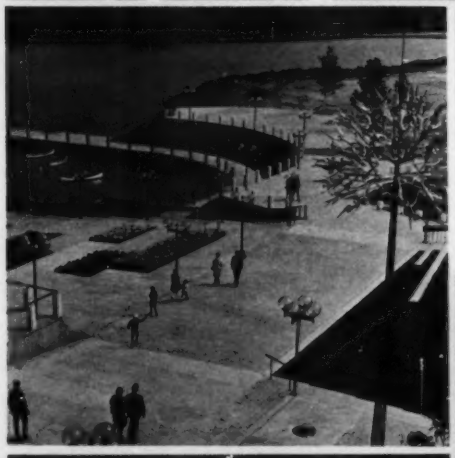
Mr. Carbine is a freelance writer.

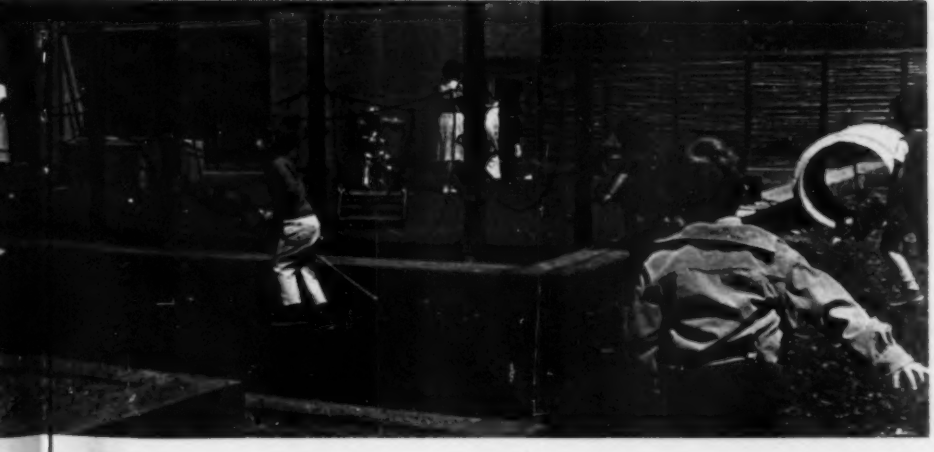
of the urban problem, but their mobility is limited by lack of money. They cannot leave the city.

One possible solution to the problem of urban decay that is attracting increasing attention is the development of new towns. Most of these towns are still in their infancy and as yet have had little impact on the overall urban picture. However, these new communities, particularly the way they deal with the crucial factors of housing and jobs, could have a strong influence on the social and economic pattern of future urban development. (Making it possible for people from deteriorated neighborhoods to move to new towns would facilitate the rebuilding of older urban core areas. Some planners believe that extensive city rebuilding cannot begin until the residents of the areas to be rebuilt have a place to go [see *Developing an Urban Strategy*, MANPOWER, May 1969].) An important question that has been raised is whether these new towns will offer the range of employment and housing necessary to give the urban poor a realistic opportunity to relocate, or whether they will be essentially well planned and well managed bedroom communities for those who want to leave the city and are able to do so.

This type of community is not new to American urban development. Pullman, Ill., and Hershey, Pa., were new towns built and dominated by private corporations. In a similar vein, the Federal Government built such new towns as Oak Ridge, Tenn., Los Alamos, N.Mex., and Richland, Wash. But these new towns were built to enhance the interests of a private corporation, in the case of Pullman and Hershey, or to provide a place to live for employees working on a major Government program.

The Federal Government also constructed three "greenbelt" towns in the late 1930's as part of the program to alleviate depression unemployment. These towns—Greenbelt, Md., Greendale, Wis., and Greenhills, Ohio—were experiments in urban living, and were intended to provide families of modest income a setting removed from the large urban centers, with carefully planned neighborhoods and controlled land ownership.





The greenbelt towns were designed to eliminate long-distance commuting by developing adequate employment, recreation, and shopping facilities in or near the community. They were to become relatively complete cities rather than new suburbs.

With the exception of Greenbelt, Md., the towns experienced economic stagnation between the late 1930's and 1950, with practically no growth registered on their undeveloped land (Greenbelt added 1,000 war housing units in 1941). There was little support for continuing the experiments on a major scale, and in 1949 Federal control over the towns was withdrawn and they were sold, with residents getting first preference in the purchase of their homes. Since the towns were opened to private development, the original complex of low-income houses has been supplemented with higher-cost single-family homes.

The new town as it is being developed today originated in England, and has found somewhat successful application not only in that country but in Scandinavia as well. In Europe, new towns are planned and financed by the Government.

England passed a New Towns Act in 1946, and today there are 18 new communities in various stages of completion. Harlow, for example, is a new town of some 80,000 residents close to London, where the majority of the residents (85 percent) live and work in the new town itself. Although the percentage of residents working as well as living in other new towns in England may not be as high as in Harlow, the Government does take steps to assure that a substantial portion of a new town's residents work there.

Vallingby and Farsta are small Swedish new towns (both with populations of approximately 25,000) close to Stockholm, and connected to that city by excellent rapid transit facilities. A great many Vallingby and Farsta residents commute to jobs in Stockholm. Some people reverse the process, living in Stockholm and commuting to jobs in one of the new towns.

The basic concept of the new town—both in Europe and the United States—calls for balanced use of land among residences, industry, and community facilities, and the availability of employment to those wishing to live and work within easy

commuting distance. Zoning regulations are supposed to be highly flexible, so they can be regulated to provide either a compact urban or a more spacious, open environment. In theory, the new town offers a broad range of housing types and prices, making it possible for lower-middle and lower-income wage earners to live there as well as those with higher incomes.

The typical new town in the United States is designed for some 20,000 to 100,000 residents, but European planners are considering new towns of up to 250,000 population. Residential areas in new towns usually are divided into neighborhoods of somewhat equal size, each with its own primary school, shopping area, and recreational facilities. The neighborhoods are usually grouped into villages, each with its principal village center and secondary school.

Industrial parks are clustered throughout the town, normally close to road and rail connections, and are well screened from residential areas, even when the industries do not create noise and pollution. Housing densities in European new towns generally range from 12 to 18 houses per acre. In the United States, densities are much lower—three to four houses per acre. If a more urban environment is desired, housing density can be increased and highly compact town centers can be built.

In the United States, there are about 70 recent developments that claim to be new towns and, under the flexibility that comes in designing a new community of this type, more or less fall into the category. Columbia, Md., and Reston, Va., are two of the best known. A cross-country sample, however, includes such communities as Clear Lake City, Tex.; Lake Havasu City and Litchfield Park, Ariz.; New Orleans East, La.; and Valencia, El Dorado Hills, and Irvine Ranch, Calif.

Unlike their European counterparts, these new towns are being developed by private interests, backed largely by major business concerns. The Connecticut General Life Insurance Company, the Chase Manhattan Bank, and Teacher's Annuity Insurance Company have invested some $50 million in the Columbia development. John Hancock Insurance and Gulf Oil have invested $30 million in Reston. Hancock also has invested heavily in El Dorado Hills, while Goodyear Tire and Rubber put money in Litchfield Park and Humble Oil in Clear Lake City.

Most of these new towns are primarily bedroom communities for professional and skilled workers, who constitute the bulk of the private housing market. They commute *out* to their jobs in nearby urban complexes. If there are unskilled jobs in the new town's industrial areas, they are held by workers commuting *in* from surrounding areas. Thus far, the developers of most new towns have hesitated to build low-income housing, mainly because they fear that it would deter prospective buyers of higher priced residences.

'A healthy new town must be an extension of the society out of which it grows. It must not only offer homes and jobs, but a variety of homes, a variety of jobs for a variety of people....'

COSMOPOLIS, ABC TELEVISION

Columbia is a large new town development in the heavily populated Baltimore-Washington corridor. The first residents moved into Columbia in the summer of 1967. The developers now believe that by 1980 the population of the city will reach 125,000, with 30,000 housing units and 30,000 jobs available. Originally planned in 1963 for 12,300 acres, Columbia has expanded to 17,000. In the initial projection, 5,600 acres were to be used for residential purposes, 650 for industrial and 150 for commercial use, and the balance for parks, schools, municipal facilities, streets, and green areas.

As originally planned, 40 percent of the total labor force living in Columbia was to be employed in the city itself. Of the jobs available in the city, some 20 percent were to be held by employed wives or other residents of Columbia who were not the heads of their families. Another 20 percent of the jobs were to be filled by people from outside the city.

Because of its location, Columbia's industry was to be research- and development-oriented. (The Washington metropolitan area contains the highest concentration of skilled technical personnel in the country. Montgomery County, adjacent to Howard County, in which Columbia is located, is one of the Nation's wealthiest counties in per capita income.) The first estimates by the developers of Columbia indicated that when fully developed there would be 5,000 service jobs, 2,000 office jobs, and 11,000 industrial jobs available there.

Columbia's planners hoped to build a city where there would be as many jobs as homes, a city with diverse employment opportunities and a broad range of income among the residents. So far it hasn't worked out that way.

Today, the annual income level for the 4,000 people living at Columbia ranges between $15,000 and $30,000. Homes range in price from $18,000 to $60,000. Rentals for a two-bedroom apartment begin at $137 per month, plus utilities. Fifteen percent of the population is Negro, mostly upper income Negroes from Baltimore.

In the last 18 months, 23 industries have been attracted to Columbia's two industrial parks. Rather than a major research and development center, Columbia is becoming a center for the distribution industry. Generally, the jobs available on the lower end of the income scale do not pay enough to enable their holders to live at Columbia.

About 3,000 jobs have been developed to date. Most of those working in Columbia's industries commute from the Baltimore-Washington area. Most of those living in Columbia work elsewhere.

Most of Columbia's current and prospective industrial firms are small, employing fewer than 100 workers. There is a mixture of research and development, distribution, light manufacturing, and sales. One of the largest firms, Bendix Field Engineering, expects to employ

750 workers when its corporate offices open in September of this year. Eastern Products, a current operator at Columbia, employs 475 workers and expects to expand that figure to 1,200 in its manufacturing and warehousing operation of small metal hardware.

General Electric plans to build a complete refrigeration assembly plant, with an expected 300 car-loadings per day, on land adjacent to Columbia. The plant will create 10,000 to 12,000 new jobs. But, as one Columbia official sees it, the workers will come from the Baltimore-Washington manpower pool, and a low- and middle-income housing development will be built near Columbia, but not in it, to accommodate GE's workers.

In its physical dimensions and layout, Columbia is designed on what architects and city planners call a "human scale." Its developers envisioned it as a community where children can walk to school and mothers to shopping centers.

Of the seven "villages" that ultimately will make up Columbia, one is now fully operational. Each village contains several smaller "neighborhoods" of 700 to 1,000 families, with an elementary school, a day-care center, a small shopping complex centered around a small self-service food store, an outside swimming pool, a park, and a playground. Each village has a secondary school, a large center with shops, and a recreational-community building, a year-round swimming pool, and other facilities.

All schools, as well as the neghborhood and village centers, are within theoretical walking distance of the homes they serve. Columbia has an internal "mini-bus" system, however, connecting the neighborhoods with the village center and Columbia Mall, the town's main shopping area.

The first public building to be built at Columbia was the Merriweather Post Pavilion of Music, which serves as the summer home of the Washington National Symphony. Work is currently underway on Columbia Mall, which will house six department stores and some 100 smaller shops in its 2 million square feet of retail space.

Reston is a smaller and more fully developed new town located directly west of metropolitan Washington, close to

Dulles International Airport, and within 20 miles of downtown Washington. Its first village opened in 1963. Located on 7,500 acres, Reston projects a future population of 75,000. Its current population of 5,100 is expected to reach 8,000 by the end of the year. The average price for a new home there is $34,000.

Like Columbia, Reston has seven villages planned, each with its component neighborhoods of 300 to 400 families. And as in Columbia, all municipal facilities are provided by the county in which it is located. But Reston, which is only one-third the size of Columbia, does not have smaller neighborhood centers. And unlike Columbia, there is an active citizens association in Reston, which has a strong voice in running the community.

Originally, Reston set aside 1,000 acres for industrial use in two belts straddling the Dulles Airport access highway, which cuts the town virtually in half. The acreage has since been expanded to 1,300. Two hundred acres are now fully developed, accounting for 1,800 jobs (2,000 predicted by the end of this year). Reston hopes eventually to provide 30,000 jobs. Ten percent of Reston's present residents also work there.

Twenty-four companies and one Federal agency have facilities in Reston's industrial area, known as the Reston Center for Government and Industry. Most of the industry is research and development. The Federal agency is the U.S. Geological Survey, which is now constructing a second complex of buildings at Reston and plans to move its headquarters there. Other Government agencies also plan to locate in Reston. Scope, Inc., employing 400 workers in the development and manufacture of defense electronic equipment; Sanders Associates, employing 250 workers in designing large-scale communications systems; and Ocean Systems, Inc., employing 100 workers in oceanographic research, are among the largest firms at Reston. The smaller firms are involved primarily in scientific research, computer program development, electronic research and development, systems analysis, consulting, and sales.

A 1968 profile of Reston residents closely resembles the Columbia population: Middle- and upper-income whites and Negroes. The exact number of Negroes living at Reston is unavailable; it is estimated, however, at 100 families. The median annual family income among buyers was $17,000, among renters, $12,000. Twenty-nine percent of the buyers were employed by the Government, 28 percent were businessmen, and 24 percent were professionals. Among renters, 45 percent were businessmen, 24 percent professionals, and 17 percent government employees.

'The city is the very expression of man. It was born out of his need. It has grown and spread in answer to his demand. Very little time, thought or effort has gone into the recent development of our cities. But the stifling creation which today threatens us could become man's greatest achievement. Indeed, it must!'

COSMOPOLIS, ABC TELEVISION

No one can dictate to a man that he work in the community where he lives. However, if new towns are to help solve the urban problems besetting the Nation, they must be able to accommodate a racially, socially, and economically mixed population. They must offer housing as well as jobs to lower income groups.

The jobs exist. More are becoming available at Reston and Columbia, and at both ends of the salary scale. But, as of this writing, only Columbia has made a start toward providing low-income housing to accommodate the jobholders.

Ground was broken last month at Columbia for the first of five groups of FHA-financed apartments for people with incomes between $4,850 and $8,950. Apartments will rent for from $97.50 to $151.50 per month. A total of 300 one-, two-, and three-bedroom apartments eventually will be available. To avoid jamming all low-income residents together in a single neighborhood, the project's sponsor—the Interfaith Housing Corporation—will scatter the units throughout Columbia.

The program's success and future expansion and the reaction of Columbia's middle- and upper-income residents to their low-income neighbors will be watched with interest.

Reston talks of 198 units of Government-subsidized housing for those making less than $10,000 to be constructed with a new technique based on methods used in building mobile homes. But Reston's plans are still indefinite.

Reston now is attracting mainly technical research and development firms, while Columbia offers a wider variety of manufacturing and industrial jobs. But the base for low-income jobs exists at Reston. As long as low-income housing is unavailable, however, workers filling these jobs must commute from outside.

Title IV of the Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968, offering Federal guarantees to private investors lending financial support to new town developments, could cause a substantial change in this situation, as could the development by contractors and unions of improved techniques in the construction of low-income housing.

In the meantime, financial considerations prompt most private developers to establish a stable base of middle and higher income homes and sound retail facilities before taking the obvious financial risk involved in building low-income housing.

The best of America's new towns are demonstrating that it is possible to build a completely new urban environment—one that is well planned and aesthetically pleasing. But for low-income families, the majority of the new towns are not yet a realistic alternative to continued residence in the seriously troubled older cities whose problems now command so much of the Nation's energy and attention.

STEELWORKERS FORGE A BETTER FUTURE

By JOHN SCOTT MCCAULEY

More money and a better job are powerful incentives for a man to learn. But working men who are school dropouts do not necessarily need an ironclad promise of these desirable benefits before they will buckle down to mending their defective educations.

A pilot project funded under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) for schooling steelworkers in Baltimore and Chicago-Gary recently turned out 1,726 graduates, some of them past 60 years old. One series of classes in reading and math was set up for men with test scores between the fifth and eighth grade levels, and another for those below the fifth grade level. After 20 weeks of basic instruction, both groups had boosted their reading and math abilities by an average of more than 2.5 grade levels.

The men knew from the start that there was no guarantee they would be promoted or receive more pay. But they were reminded that education is an important element in getting ahead. Other factors that encouraged enrollment were the active support given the project by union and company officials and the convenient location and informal setting of the classes which were held in the plants.

The program, now in its second year, has been expanded to steel plants in six other cities. If it continues to be successful, union and management officials will consider the feasibility of extending it throughout the steel industry.

This is one of several major MDTA experimental efforts to find effective ways of helping American workers move into better jobs. As they go up the ladder, new opportunities will open up for the hard-core unemployed.

The project—called Cooperative Steel Industry Basic Education Program—was designed to meet the needs of steelworkers with limited education (many of them Mexican Americans who spoke no English) who found themselves locked into jobs at the bottom of the career ladder.

John Scott McCauley, Ph.D., is special assistant for manpower program development in the Manpower Administration. He was chairman of the committee that drafted plans for the Cooperative Steel Industry Basic Education Program.

STEELWORKERS
continued

They lacked the basic knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic needed to qualify for apprenticeships or other training which would open the way to better jobs. Their neglected schooling also left them ill prepared to adjust to the technological changes that were occurring in the steel industry.

On the personal side, many of the workers, unable to read or write, were subjected daily to the humiliating experience of relying on their wives and children to handle simple business transactions. Both the companies and the union were concerned. Many grievances and operating problems resulted when senior employees were denied advancement because of educational deficiencies.

The project has been helpful in clearing up some of the difficulties these men had at home and on the job. At Gary, Ind., for example, a track gang laborer for U.S. Steel filed a grievance when denied a promotion. After a great deal of time and trouble for the union and the company, the final ruling went against the employee because he could not read or write. He has since completed both the basic and advanced courses and has been promoted to locomotive engineer.

Computing Interest Rates

Learning reading and math helped a Mexican American at Gary resolve an irritating financial problem, how to compute interest rates. "For the first time I am sure that that bank fellow is not cheating me," he said. "Before I always went home with the feeling that he was not telling me the right things, but now I know."

Another student, a grizzled oldtimer, has at last won the respect of his family. "These classes have done me a lot of good," he said. "For the first time my kids kinda look up to me. I'm not just a dumb old man anymore."

Funding for the project was obtained from the Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare, which were interested in developing a pilot program to show what could be done to help workers with inadequate educations. About $1 million in MDTA money was allocated to cover the cost of instruction for 14 months.

Initial plans for the program were formulated early in 1967 at a series of meetings attended by top union and management officials and representatives of the U. S. Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare. It was decided that the actual instruction would be administered by the U. S. Office of Education under contract with the Board for Fundamental Education (BFE), a private nonprofit organization.

The union, the companies, and the Government agreed on the following guidelines:

- The program would upgrade the education skills of workers to prepare them for better jobs and training opportunities. However, it would not be feasible to guarantee promotions to graduates.
- Classes would be held several times during the day and night in convenient locations in the plant. The hours were arranged so that workers from each shift could attend immediately before or after work. Each worker would be in class 2 hours a day, 3 days a week for 20 weeks (or longer if he needed more time to finish successfully).
- Participation would be voluntary.
- The pilot effort would be held in two steel producing areas—in Baltimore at Armco and Bethlehem Steel, and in Chicago-Gary, at the Inland, Youngstown Sheet and Tube, Republic, and Midwest steel plants, and three U. S. Steel Corporation facilities.

The curriculum was divided into two levels of instruction. The first was for individuals performing below the 4.5 grade level in both word meaning and arithmetic. They would be taught a sight vocabulary of 3,000 basic words, basic arithmetic, and English usage good enough to enable each man to write a letter.

The advanced level was for those scoring between the 4.5 and 8.0 grade levels. Trainees would graduate when they reached 8.0 in both word meaning and arithmetic. Among the objectives were a sight vocabulary of 7,000 to 10,000 words; reading comprehension; functional use of fractions, decimals, percents, weights and measures, and graphs; knowledge of acceptable English usage and the principles of science; and an introduction to U.S. history.

The next step was to sell the program to management and labor officials all the way down the line, and, of course, to the workers. Steelworkers Union President I. W. Abel and the Executive Vice President of U.S. Steel, R. Conrad Cooper, were cochairmen of the initial briefing session for key officials in May 1967. Company representatives and union district directors were given all the details, and a joint committee was established to set up trainee quotas and to make arrangements for overseeing the program for each plant. The BFE briefed more than 3,900 supervisory personnel and local union officials in the plants. These meetings erased misunderstandings, encouraged cooperation, and were indispensable to ultimate success. The active role played by the union allayed the doubts workers may have had about management's motives in sponsoring the classes.

Clinics Spur Attendance

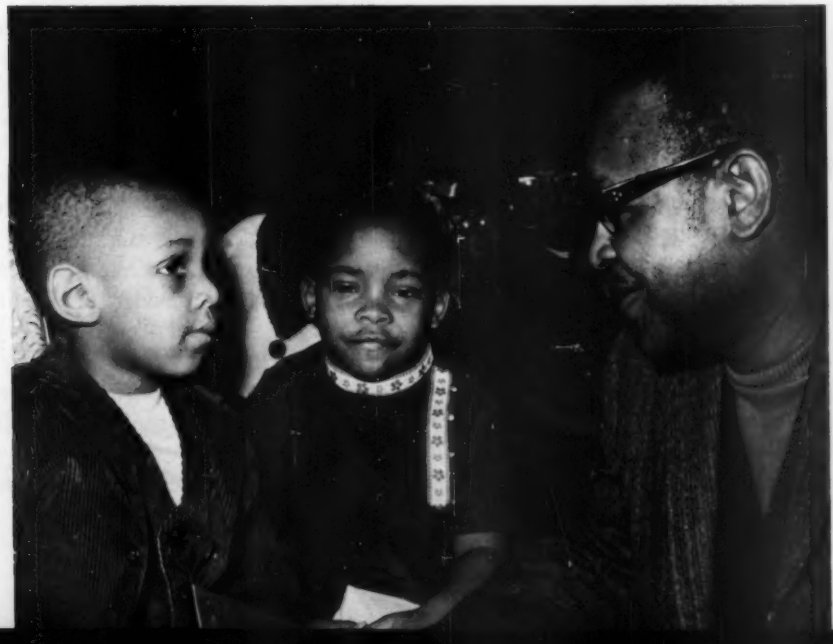
More than 500 "employee clinics" were held to explain the program to workers thought to be eligible because of inadequate education. To spur attendance, the clinics were usually held in the production departments on company time. A question and answer session followed each presentation. Of 4,306 who came to the clinics in the first year, 3,845 (89.3 percent) wanted to enroll. No age limits were imposed.

The men were tested immediately to determine the classes to which they should be assigned. The 322 who scored above the eighth grade level were screened out. The testing revealed that large numbers of men who were above the eighth grade in language ability were far below that in arithmetic. To meet their needs, a special mathematics class was organized in each of the mills.

Instructor John Largent (left) finds time during class to give individual help to a student.

Making steel is hard work — and so is returning to school after a long absence.

A son and daughter share a proud moment with dad during graduation ceremonies.



About 21 percent of the 3,523 workers assigned to the program did not attend a single class. Some who failed to show up were sensitive about attending a basic education course. Others who indicated an interest in the program at the employee clinic probably did so only because so many of their coworkers signed up.

Classes, which began in September 1967, were conducted informally in very plain surroundings. Anything that might resemble a classroom atmosphere—and remind workers of past failures—was carefully avoided. Work tables were usually arranged in a circle, rather than in the rows typical of most classrooms. The men were encouraged to help each other, thus creating a strong group spirit. A more outgoing student was occasionally assigned to work with a passive one.

Of the 2,782 workers who attended at least one class during the first year, 1,726 (62 percent) graduated. A much lower proportion of the older participants completed the program. Only 25 percent of those 60 years of age or over and 31 percent of those in the 55 to 59 age group stayed till the end. By contrast, 73.5 percent of those aged 40 to 44 graduated.

The reasons generally given by those who quit were illness, interference of classes with a second job, overtime work, and transportation difficulties. Although the companies made a special effort to provide classroom space at centralized locations, the wide dispersal of buildings in steel plants made it difficult for some workers to get to and from their work stations and classes, especially in winter.

Dropout rates were reduced as the project progressed. Company officials reemphasized to foremen the importance management attached to the program. The union also reaffirmed its support. The fact that the vice president of a local union was attending classes was a helpful factor at one mill. When a worker missed class, his foreman was asked to find out why. Foremen also helped with personal problems that interfered with the performance of their men in class. Family problems were handled by a BFE staff member or a union official, who visited the worker's home after hours.

STEELWORKERS
continued

These steps succeeded in persuading many absentees to return to class.

To measure academic improvement, the BFE gave participants the same type of test they had taken during the employee clinics. These tests showed that the 646 basic course graduates had raised their mean reading grade level from 3.2 to 6.0 and their arithmetic level from 3.3 to 5.9. The 729 advanced course graduates improved their reading from 6.2 to 9.6 and their arithmetic level from 5.6 to 10.1.

The special math course students began at a mean level of 6.3 and scored 10.9 at the end. (They received no instruction in reading.)

Tests administered by the steel companies have supported the results obtained by BFE.

Although it is too early to appraise the full impact of the program, reports indicate some of the steelworkers have already been promoted to better paying jobs. One worker, a mill laborer for 23 years, was so determined to better himself that he attended classes right through his 10-week vacation. Four months after completing the course he was promoted. A member of the union grievance committee, working as a loader at U. S. Steel in Chicago, was promoted on graduation to inspector, with a hefty increase in pay.

Supervisors report that program participants display greater interest and ability in their jobs. Foremen at Inland Steel recently rated a sample group of graduates significantly higher than a control group of nonparticipants in attitude toward work, understanding of verbal orders, job performance, and promotability. A senior melter foreman in the same plant gave credit for a new production record in the Basic Oxygen Furnace Shop to crew members whose improved performance he attributed to their newly acquired education.

An important byproduct of the program was establishment of an MDTA project to train unemployed workers for entry-level jobs in the steel industry. This program was designed to improve the employability of persons who had been rejected for jobs because of their limited education. Basic education classes for these workers were organized by the public employment service and the public schools of South Chicago, Gary, and East Chicago. As of March 15, 1969, more than 90 of the 180 graduates had been hired by the steel industry.

The pilot program for employed steelworkers has been expanded and continued for another year. The companies wanted to see how it would work in other locations before judging whether to extend it throughout the industry. And both the union and the companies wanted to include courses at the high school level. Accordingly, the contract with BFE was extended to November 1969, with additional funding of $900,000 from the Federal Government.

New Courses Added

Basic and advanced courses have now been started at Armco Steel in Houston; Bethlehem Steel in Lackawanna, N.Y.; National Steel in Ecorse, Mich.; U.S. Steel in Fairchild, Ala., and Lorain, Ohio; and Youngstown Sheet and Tube in Youngstown, Ohio. Special math classes have been organized in Houston and Lackawanna. Meanwhile, high school level courses have been started in the plants that participated in the first year of the pilot project. At most of these plants the basic and advanced courses have been repeated. By February 1969, a total of 387 workers were enrolled in the high school level courses, 350 in the basic, 555 in the advanced, and 49 in special math classes.

Lessons gained from the second year of experimentation, when added to the first year's experience, should provide a sound basis for appraising the feasibility of extending this form of adult education throughout the steel industry. The results should also be of interest to management and labor in other industries, particularly those hiring disadvantaged workers whose basic education will need to be strengthened before they can be moved up the job ladder. Moreover, the experience obtained from extending the project to the high school level may give management, labor, and government a new vision of what can be accomplished by working together to improve the skills and knowledge of employed workers.

Taking the Dust off Household Jobs

By MARY D. SCHLICK

According to the law of supply and demand, a shortage of workers in a certain occupation is supposed to result in higher wages and better working conditions. These improvements, so the theory goes, attract more and better workers to the occupation and thus alleviate the shortage. In practice, however, the theory does not always work, and there are few better cases in point than household work.

Mrs. Schlick was a member of the staff of the National Committee on Household Employment from September 1966 to April of this year, serving first as assistant project director and then project director.

The Nation's unprecedented prosperity and the increasing number of employed wives have generated a steadily growing demand for housekeeping and related services of all kinds. This demand is not being met, although there are millions of unemployed and underemployed people who are seeking decent jobs. U.S. Department of Labor figures show that, while it is still one of the largest occupations for women, the number of private household workers 16 years old and above dropped from 1.9 million in 1960 to less than 1.7 million in 1968. The reasons for this decline are not hard to understand.

Donations of worn clothing or leftover food as part substitute for pay and long hours of work regulated by the whim of the employer are among the archaic practices associated with household jobs. The domestic who goes to a different employer each day often is expected to do a whole week's work every day—a week's cleaning at each house. Usually, she gets no sick leave or paid vacation. The average pay for household workers working full time in this country is about $1,300 a year. If a household worker is paid the equivalent of the national minimum wage of $1.60 an hour, she will earn $3,328 a year before her share of social security tax is paid as required by law. Even if she is paid $1.75 an hour, she will earn only $3,640 a year, hardly enough to feed, clothe, and house a family adequately. Yet, in 1967 more than 250,000 household workers were family heads.

The pay scale and working conditions for household jobs are an anachronism in a country that points with pride to its modern labor practices. The occupation must be restructured to make it attractive to workers who desire to give good service. It must be made a rewarding occupation with dignity and status, an occupation a worker would choose voluntarily for a livelihood. Various methods of accomplishing this remodeling are being tested through a series of experimental and demonstration projects directed by the National Committee on Household Employment (NCHE) under contract with the U.S. Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare.

The first of these experimental projects, Willmart Services, Inc., in Washington, D.C., was funded in 1966 under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA). Seven more pilot projects were approved for funding in March 1968 to make up the National Pilot Program in Household Employment. Willmart Services has completed its year's demonstration and the other seven are entering their second year.

Each project attacks the problems of recruiting, training, counseling, and placing household workers in a slightly different way. The program's objectives are to determine:

- How new attitudes and methods might be developed to make household employment a more attractive and rewarding occupation.
- How new types of organizations might improve and expand household service opportunities from the standpoint of both potential workers and employers.
- The extent to which such organizations may require continuing financial support.
- What guides on the feasibility, desirability, costs, and nature of any large-scale national program can be developed.

The seven pilot projects still underway are in Manhattan (Kans.); Chicago; Pittsburgh; Philadelphia; Boston; New York; and Alexandria (Va.). All are trying to build knowledge and techniques for restructuring the occupation. Restructuring means changing form, but what can be changed in an occupation as old as household employment?

First, the workers can change as a result of motivation and training. They can provide the quality of service employers will value. Then the job can be changed as employers gain a new understanding of the worker and the service jobs needed in their homes. The conditions of employment can change. From a no-future, no-security occupation, it may be possible to build in fringe benefits, expand opportunities for advancement, develop retirement plans, and make household work a job that offers rewards similar to other useful employment.

Most women know that the knowledge and skills of housekeeping are not innate, but must be learned. They know that shepherding the growth and development of a child also takes specific knowledge and skills. At one time in history it could be assumed that the skills needed to maintain a quality home environment were learned at home under the tutelage of an experienced mother, aunt, or grandmother.

But with the shift from a producing to a service economy, the home has lost much of its function as a producing unit. New kitchen and laundry equipment, other mechanical helpers, and

packaged services have eliminated many of the chores people had to do for themselves in the past to keep a household running smoothly. These advances have removed some of the built-in training young people used to get in household work.

In addition, technological changes have produced a demand for more highly skilled household services. Many employers continue to seek the kind of household help that was satisfactory in the past, only to be disappointed with the results. Even if the employee has received the built-in training of earlier days, this is not adequate for today's needs. And if the employee is young, there frequently has been very little training at home. Employers are discovering that unskilled, untrained workers can no longer cope with the changed household. The need for some form of training has become apparent.

All of the demonstration projects offer comprehensive training. Each includes the more obvious skills used to care for the home and everything in it. Communication skills also are taught. They are needed on any job, but are especially important in the intimate setting of a private home. Training also includes use of public transportation systems, care of dependents, use of health services, understanding of social security and income tax requirements, and other job responsibilities.

In some projects, as part of the training, retired household workers living on social security payments describe the benefits of the social security system. Employers who are actually hiring or placing workers lead workshops on applying for jobs and on job benefits. Caterers who serve elegant parties or hostesses who entertain often demonstrate party foods and service.

All training includes some way for the trainee to use her new skill in real situations. In some projects this is provided by supervised experience in homes in addition to the simulated work environment of the training center.

While they share a comprehensive approach to training, the seven projects differ in methods. Two, Boston and Manhattan (Kans.), are notable for their live-in features. The Boston project works mainly with women from the South who came to the area to be household workers but lacked the training and skills required to manage a modern household. An intensive course, called In-Migrant Homemakers Training Program, is given by the Women's Service Club in its residence center. Those enrolled in the program are trained as "household specialists." A new title for the occupation is an important element in the overall effort to change the nature and image of household work. Neither "domestic" nor "maid" reflects the skills that are being taught in the various training programs.

The Homemakers Training Program at Kansas State University in Manhattan prepares women 45 and older to take over as homemakers for families disrupted by illness or other emergencies. The trainees live in a home management house for 3 weeks of the 4-week course. The remaining week is spent on a work experience assignment with a homemaker employed by a public agency in a Kansas community.

Pay Above Average

In both Boston and Manhattan, recruitment was difficult at first, due partly to the feeling that no one needs training for household work and, in Kansas State's case, reluctance to leave home to come to the university campus for a month. But as news of the training and the jobs obtained by the first graduates spread, applicants sought out the program.

One Boston graduate is working at $2.50 an hour, well above the current wage for untrained household workers. In Kansas, all graduates working as homemakers are receiving $1.85 an hour or more, which also is above the going rate.

Efforts also are underway to reshape household employment by changing the job. All of the pilot projects are working with employers toward this end in one way or another. Those with the strongest thrust in this direction are the Household Employment Project, sponsored by the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) of Metropolitan Chicago, and the Household Employment Association for Rehabilitation and Training (HEART) in Philadelphia.

Household Jobs
continued

YWCA volunteers plan to conduct seminars in the Chicago suburbs for prospective employers of their graduates, using the code of standards developed by the NCHE as a basis for discussion. In the interim, intensive employer education is being carried on by the job placement staff. In Philadelphia, employers and employees are working out a code of standards to be entitled, "What's in a Day's Work." Prospective employers in the Philadelphia area attend a short course in techniques of supervision of household workers. In both cities, employers get a realistic idea of what trained household employees can be expected to accomplish. This approach helps produce more attractive job offers. Experience to date indicates that employers will agree more readily to the idea of seminars than to attending meetings.

An Informal Report

Staff members of the Chicago project check personally with the employers of the program's graduates to assure that pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions are being maintained at an adequate level. Some informal reports are delivered by the graduates themselves. One enthusiastic graduate who is responsible for operating a household with the help of other employees returned to the Chicago center recently to display her $100 paycheck for 1 week's work. "I always worked this hard," she said, "but never was paid for it."

Experiments in restructuring through changing the conditions of the occupation itself are being carried out by the projects in New York, Pittsburgh, and Alexandria. The project sponsor in New York is a business firm, Household Management, Inc. (HMI). Upon graduation, trainees become household technicians and employees of the firm if they choose. HMI has found that the largest demand in New York is for cleaning and laundry service and is training specifically for those jobs. There is some demand for light cooking.

As orders come in, the needs of the household are carefully analyzed and the work schedule for each graduate is planned. Purchasers of the service pay by the job rather than by the hour, thus increasing the earning capacity of each household technician. As employees of the firm, graduates are guaranteed full-time employment and get sick leave and a vacation with pay. They are also covered by workmen's compensation and, in New York State, by unemployment insurance as well. They work regular hours and their wages are higher than those received by untrained household workers in the area.

HMI graduates receive $95 if they work a full week. According to the HMI director, $1.75 per hour with guaranteed full–time employment would be a competitive wage in New York City which would attract workers into this occupation.

Household Workers for Industry, the Pittsburgh project sponsored by the Ethnic Foundation, is seeking a new role for the occupation by placing it in the benefit structure of industry. Contracts are sought with companies to provide skilled household workers on call for employees who might otherwise have to stay home due to family emergencies. Japanese businesses originated this plan to prevent absenteeism.

Another method under consideration involving industry would provide household service as an added benefit for executives, or as a fringe benefit negotiated in union contracts. In each case the household workers would be on the payroll of the Ethnic Foundation, receiving the same fringe benefits as other foundation employees. Graduates of the Pittsburgh project are receiving $15 to $17 per day, compared to the $10 to $12 a day earned by most other household workers in the area. According to the project director, the goal is $20 a day to make the jobs competitive with other occupations.

The Urban League-sponsored project in Alexandria, Va., Services United for Responsible and Gainful Employment (SURGE), plans to become a trainee-owned cooperative, with the employees sharing profits as an added incentive for them to stay with the occupation. Benefits such as this would add security where it traditionally has been absent.

Perhaps the major problem of the organizations which are contracting for the services of household workers and thus providing the benefits of other regular employment is the reluctance of the worker to have income tax withheld from the pay check. Very often the householder pays in cash and neither income tax nor social security payments are deducted. But when the household employee works through a firm, tax and social security are withheld. And although base pay is higher, take-home pay often is not enough higher than the worker makes under the traditional system to be a real incentive to stay with the firm. Other incentives must be found.

Cooperation Needed

The experimental projects are demonstrating that there are many ways household work can be changed. But these limited efforts can only point out some promising paths. Large-scale change in the status of household work will require the commitment and cooperation of individual employers and professional people.

Employers must understand and accept the need for upgrading household jobs, and the impact it will have on pay scales. People in the professions, particularly home economics, must take a closer look at all occupations related to household employment. They must turn their attention to the deadend aspect of household work and try to devise ways for skilled household workers to advance to other fields. Educators should provide, through regular public educational channels, training programs to equip household workers with the skills they need for the jobs available in their communities. And, finally, all interested parties must help develop regular placement procedures which would guarantee household employees the wages, hours, fringe benefits, and working conditions that other skilled workers enjoy.

mini-guides point way to work

Mini-skirts are brief, leave little to the imagination, and attract attention. So do the mini-guides being distributed by the U.S. Department of Labor, which take their name from the latest provocative trend in women's wear.

These straightforward one-sheet leaflets describe various trades and crafts in simple terms. Employment and manpower officials who have tested use of the guides report that they have been effective in spurring the interest of disadvantaged men and women in choosing an occupation and acquiring appropriate job skills. The Department of Labor has made samples of them available to State employment service offices as a tool for reaching unemployed people with poor reading ability.

Mini-guides are just about as mini as a job skill leaflet could be—one sheet of colored paper, folded in the middle to make four pages. They are eye catching, lean heavily on simple drawings and sketches to make their points, and are inexpensive to produce.

All the pertinent information is there. A typical mini-guide tells the wage rates, hours, fringe benefits, and duties of a particular occupation. It also describes the work environment, hazards of the occupation, how to learn the skill, and where to get assistance in obtaining a job.

The idea originated with the California Department of Employment, which tried out a series of mini-guides in employment service offices and youth centers in communities with concentrations of hard-core unemployed people.

The response was enthusiastic. California already has mini-guides describing 23 different occupations, ranging from auto mechanic to cook, and from floral designer to hospital aide. More are being created.

The U.S. Training and Employment Service (USTES) in the Labor Department saw the potentialities of the California mini-guides and furnished samples to the other 49 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands. Nearly all responded with a request for more information. The USTES then made arrangements to supply a full set of samples to help the States develop mini-guides suited to their own needs.

Several States have already moved ahead. Arizona has a number of mini-guides in print; Pennsylvania has issued a modified version of six; and other States are adapting the leaflets to their requirements. Three States have indicated they are considering issuing the guides in Spanish as well as in English.

'As long as a man's life means something to someone else it will mean something, to him.'

WILLIAM PASSMORE
Handicapped American of the Year

A man in prison once wrote that to William Passmore. It is a feeling Passmore understands fully. Helping others, making their lives mean something to him, is Passmore's vocation—and avocation. He helps others in his official capacity as a work coordinator with the Mayor's Committee on Social and Economic Opportunity, which is the sponsor of the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) in his hometown of East Chicago, Ind., part of the Chicago-Gary metropolitan complex. Off the job, he helps people through various civic endeavors in which he is active, through a newspaper column he writes, by regular visits to the local hospital, and in any other way he can figure out that is effective.

As an NYC work coordinator, Passmore finds jobs for disadvantaged youth. If they are in school, he tries to persuade them to finish their education. If they have dropped out or graduated from high school, he tries to get them good jobs and to help them with any problems of adjustment that may arise. He is teacher, counselor, friend, and sometimes parent.

Passmore doesn't limit his counseling and job referral services to NYC youngsters. He will assist any youngster who comes in asking for help in finding work. He keeps on top of job openings in the area and he makes certain his numerous contacts among employers know of the people he has available for work. He has found jobs for hundreds of youngsters, often reaching out to other Indiana cities and to Chicago to make placements.

Passmore's coworkers marvel at the rapport he has with young people. Maybe it is because the youngsters he helps have not had it easy, and neither has he. When Passmore was a child his father died. When he was 17 a high school football injury left his legs paralyzed. Two years later gangrene set in and both legs had to be amputated.

But he refused to settle for a life on the sidelines. With the help of visiting teachers, he got his high school

diploma. Soon after, he began earning his own living and helping others. And he hasn't stopped doing either since.

Passmore's accomplishments, courage, and compassion have long been known and appreciated in East Chicago. Earlier this year he received national recognition when he was named the Handicapped American of the Year and received the President's Trophy during the annual meeting of the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped in Washington.

Passmore's first job after he completed his education was as a night dispatcher for a taxicab company. Businessmen who called for a cab got their transportation, and often also found themselves in a brief discussion about someone the dispatcher knew who needed a job. Many of the people Passmore first "met" over the phone during his 11 years as a taxi dispatcher have proved helpful in his search for jobs for NYC youngsters.

Passmore's newspaper column, "East Chicago on the Go," which he has written for 18 years for the *Chicago Daily Defender*, has provided him with another window on the world of East Chicago, its people, and its problems.

For the past 18 years most of Passmore's Sunday afternoons have been reserved for visiting patients at St. Catherine Hospital, where he had spent so much time himself. St. Catherine is East Chicago's only hospital, and the patients reflect the city's polyglot population. Many of them are not comfortable in English, so Passmore often talks in one of the six languages which, though he has not mastered, he has learned well enough for limited conversation.

The years of Sunday afternoons spent moving about the wards and rooms in his wheelchair have brought Passmore a wide range of friends. A substantial part of his influence in the community —with business leaders, civic organizations, labor, churches, the medical profession, and citizens in all walks of life—can be traced directly to his hospital visits.

Passmore also is extremely active in rehabilitating convicts. He is a sponsor of "Convicts Anonymous," a group therapy organization which prepares men in prison for life outside, and of "Convicts Unlimited," which finds jobs for them after release.

"The people Passmore counsels don't come back to prison," an Indiana Department of Corrections official says.

The success of Passmore's voluntary efforts to help the disadvantaged led 2 years ago to his present position with the NYC. Last year, on his 39th birthday, the citizens of East Chicago honored him with a dinner party. Some 600 people attended, including the mayor, friends from the Jaycees, staff and former patients from St. Catherine, and fellow members of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and the many other organizations to which he belongs.

What they felt was perhaps best expressed by Mrs. Scott Carpenter in the tribute to Passmore she delivered in Washington at the presentation of the President's Trophy. She saluted him as a man of courage who "ignores handicap, denies bitterness, and refuses defeat."

William Passmore, Handicapped American of the Year, pins a "Hire the Handicapped" button on President Nixon. Also visiting with the President in the White House Rose Garden was Passmore's mother, Mrs. Laura Passmore.

News & Notes

Youths now in Job Corps centers scheduled for closing will be given a choice between transferring to another center or to another training program. The Labor Department has established a $1 million fund to supplement existing training opportunities and to make them available to enrollees who wish to move to other manpower programs. Youth who do not want to continue in the restructured Job Corps will be given "priority" in referral to other federally funded training projects. No enrollee will be abandoned because of Job Corps center closings, said Secretary of Labor George P. Shultz.

* * *

Restaurants and bars may employ more than 3 million people by 1975, the U.S. Department of Labor estimates. They are one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the United States. They employed more than 2 million people in 1968 and sales were more than $25 billion. Employment rose 50 percent over the last decade and sales soared 80 percent. Many handicapped persons have been trained for these jobs. One recent project—in which the National Association of Retarded Children, the Manpower Administration, and several large restaurant chains cooperated—resulted in the employment of more than 400 mentally retarded persons in restaurant jobs.

* * *

The Nation's businessmen will be asked to hire and train 238,000 disadvantaged jobless men and women during the next year under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program. JOBS has been expanded to an additional 75 metropolitan areas for a total of 125. The new JOBS Program, called MA-5, has some basic changes. Not only does it provide for hiring and training by businessmen of the hard-core unemployed, as did previous programs, but also for the upgrading of present employees. Nonprofit organizations—such as hospitals and health and welfare agencies—can now participate, along with profit-making enterprises.

The National Council of Jewish Women plans to set up a network of integrated day-care centers in urban areas to help prepare underprivileged children for school and to give mothers an opportunity to seek work. Fees will range from 25 cents a day for the care of the child to $15 a week, depending upon the income of the mother. The centers will be established in abandoned store fronts and houses, church basements, Sunday school classrooms, and churches of all faiths.

* * *

A team of sociologists at the University of Pennsylvania has been hired to find out how the lives of welfare recipients change as a result of participating in the U.S. Department of Labor's Work Incentive (WIN) Program. WIN helps move individuals off welfare into jobs through counseling, skill training, and job development.

* * *

A new wrinkle in bringing jobs and people together has been unveiled by Ability Search, a Washington, D.C., technical employment agency. The private firm offers prospective employers and employees video-taped interviews of one another.

* * *

The Ford Foundation has made several new grants to aid minority groups and the poor. Among these was a $100,000 allocation to Ebony Development Corp. of Baltimore to provide a credit guaranty that would permit the Negro-owned corporation to borrow for the purchase of 10 inner-city supermarkets now owned by whites. Another $100,000 went to the National Committee on Household Employment for a campaign to overcome the master-servant stigma on domestic work. Grants totaling $883,000 were made to organizations in Oakland, Cleveland, New York, and Boston aimed at increasing the number of minority-group contractors qualified to take on large construction jobs. The American Film Institute received $25,000 for on-the-job training of black apprentices in film production skills.

Publications

Single copies of any of the following publications can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. For multiple copies of priced items write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Mr. Employer: Help Is Here!

Flyer urges employers to hire older persons because they are good workers. Explains the kinds of work older persons can do and are doing well, and why it is good business to hire them.

Issues Reflected in Appeals Decisions on Unemployment Benefits

Seventy-three-page book contains 15 articles on issues covered in appeals decisions on unemployment benefits. Articles deal with interpretations of eligibility and disqualification provisions of State unemployment insurance laws and show the types of problems involved in unemployment benefit appeals.

Manpower Publications

Flyer lists recent Manpower Administration publications, including brief description of each publication, price, and how it can be obtained.

Eating and Drinking Places Industry—Industry Manpower Survey No. 115

Report on a nationwide survey designed in cooperation with the National Restaurant Association and conducted by the U.S. Training and Employment Service and the State employment services to provide information on job market developments and opportunities, particularly as they affect disadvantaged workers.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps—Hope and Help for Youth

Pamphlet describes the program of work experience and training for youth between 14 and 22 which has enrolled more than 1½ million poverty-level youngsters since it began in 1965. 15 cents.

Neighborhood Youth Corps

Flyer giving brief account of material in pamphlet on same subject.

Immigrant Worker Certification Program, Fiscal Year 1968

A report on certification experience of the Department of Labor in administering Section 212 (a) (14) of the Immigration and Nationality Act to assure that not enough workers are available in the occupations sought by immigrants and that the wages and working conditions of similarly employed U.S. workers will not be adversely affected.

How You Can Help Reduce Barriers to the Employment of Mature Women

Women's Bureau pamphlet discusses in detail how the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 benefits women who have had difficulty finding suitable employment because of age.

Summary of State Labor Laws for Women

Today, all 50 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have laws regulating the employment of women. Women's Bureau booklet summarizes and explains the differences among State laws regulating employment of women.

Expanding Opportunities for Girls: Their Special Counseling Needs

Women's Bureau flyer designed to help counselors, teachers, and parents prepare girls for their dual role of homemakers and workers.

Careers for Women

Series of eight Women's Bureau leaflets describes qualifications required in a variety of occupations open to women and gives sources of further information.

- Why Not Be an Engineer? 5 cents
- Why Not Be an Optometrist? 10 cents
- Why Not Be a Pharmacist? 10 cents
- Why Not Be a Medical Technologist? 10 cents
- Why Not Be a Public Relations Worker? 10 cents
- Why Not Be a Technical Writer? 10 cents
- Why Not Be a Mathematician? 10 cents
- Why Not Be a Personnel Specialist? 10 cents

Occupational Outlook Quarterly

Illustrated periodical published four times a year by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for counselors, teachers, educators, parents, and others who work with young people; students; and people interested in finding or changing jobs. 45 cents per copy; $1.50 for 1-year subscription.

Urban Manpower

Special issue of the Occupational Outlook Quarterly contains articles by authors from U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development on manpower problems of the cities and some of the action being taken to overcome them. 45 cents.

Education and Jobs

Series of five Bureau of Labor Statistics pamphlets to guide young people to jobs that match different levels of education and training. Pamphlets cover jobs for which:

- A high school education is preferred, but not essential.
- A high school education is generally required.
- Apprenticeship training is available.
- Junior college, technical institute, or other specialized training is usually required.
- A college education is usually required.

10 cents for each pamphlet.

Looking Ahead to a Career

Bureau of Labor Statistics color slides and narrative describing kinds of jobs which will open up in next 10 years and industries which will provide them. Set of 36 color slides (2 inch by 2 inch, 35mm.) $10; filmstrip $5.

Counselor's Guide to Manpower Information

Comprehensive list of nearly 800 Government publications useful in counseling, from 1962 to 1968, compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. $1.00.

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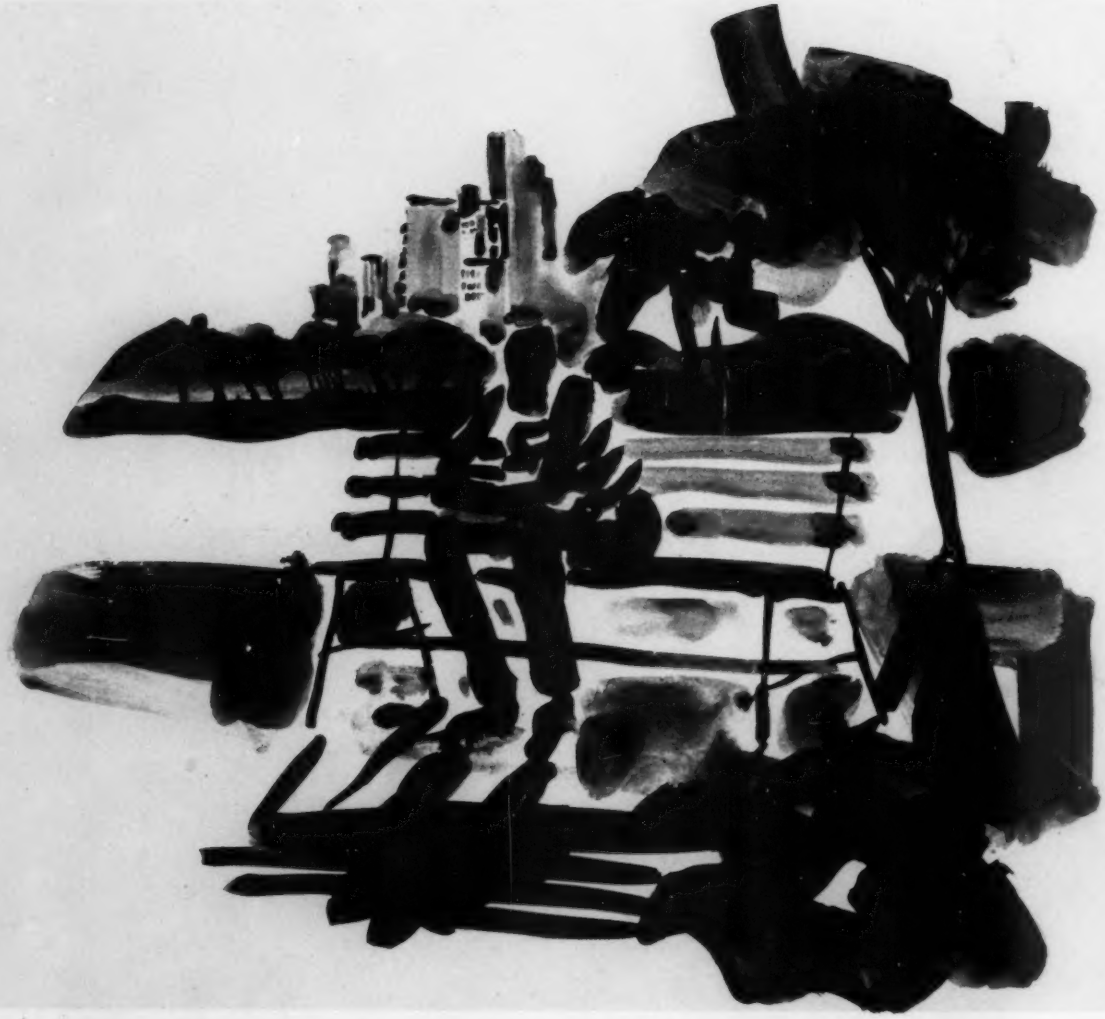

Vacation or Vocation?

It's great to take a break from the routine . . . a vacation from whatever is usual.
But when taking a break becomes a vocation—it can mean more than routine trouble for a young person.
This summer, 12-million young people will spend their vacation working. Another 2-million, however, may make their vacation a vocation—unless the rest of us make it part of our business to see that summer jobs are available.
We are all creatures of habit. Idleness can become a way of life . . . until it becomes something worse.
Help them find something better—a vocation.
Hire young workers for summer jobs. If you need help, call your local state employment service.

President's Council on Youth Opportunity